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ABSTRACT

Although much education supervision literature seems applicable to supervisory practice at all schooling levels, each level has differences, as well as similarities, regarding supervisory context, supervisor roles and responsibilities, and supervisor and staff member characteristics. This paper describes and compares supervisors and supervision at the early childhood, elementary, and secondary levels, focusing on the day care director, the elementary principal, and the high school principal. Generalizations are then made that have implications for the recruitment, training, and support of supervisors. First, supervision is not valued at any level; in each case, the director/principal lacks adequate support to supervise staff appropriately. Second, supervision is only one aspect of a broader, all-encompassing role associated with being an educational program head. Third, as organizations become larger, supervision becomes less personal and more formal. Fourth, when moving from preschool settings to high schools, supervisory focus shifts from the child, to the teacher, to the subject and the teacher. Fifth, at each level there is a racial and gender imbalance among supervisors, teachers, and children. Sixth, at the day care and elementary levels, the director/principal's educational background and work experience may not match students' ages. Seventh, staff development is a crucial supervisor role at each level. Finally, directors and principals need more training in supervising noninstructional staff. Clearly, directors and principals' supervisory roles and working conditions do not enable regular staff supervision to occur in a thoughtful, meaningful manner. (25 references) (MLH)

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EARLY CHILDHOOD, ELEMENTARY, AND SECONDARY SUPERVISORS AND SUPERVISION: A DESCRIPTION AND COMPARISION

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EARLY CHILDHOOD, ELEMENTARY, AND SECONDARY SUPERVISORS AND SUPERVISION: A DESCRIPTION AND COMPARISION

Much of the education supervision literature is generic in that it is intended to apply to the practice of supervision at all levels of schooling, early childhood, elementary and secondary. At each level, however, there are differences, as well as similarities, in the context in which supervision takes place, the roles and responsibilities of supervisors, and the characteristics of supervisors and staff members. The purpose of this paper is to describe and compare supervisors and supervision at the early childhood, elementary and secondary levels. To facilitate this goal, the supervisory roles of three of the most common administrator/supervisors will be studied. They are: the high school principal, the elementary school principal, and the day care director.

Day Care Directors and Their Supervision

What is the typical profile of an individual in the position of director of a day care program?

Day care directors tend to be young, female, and white. Whitebook, Howes, and Phillips (1989) report in the National Child Care Staffing Study (NCSS) that 21% of administrative directors are under 30, 6% are male and 80%, white. Caruso (1982) found that 50% of inidividuals in supervisory positions were between the ages of 18 and 35 and 70%, under age 45, while more than 90% were female. Other studies show similar findings (Caruso, 1988; Gould, (1983); Thomas, (1978).

The educational preparation of those in the role of director varies greatly; some may hold only a high school diploma, while others have earned Ph.D.'s, the majority holding bachelor's degrees or more. While

those with associate degrees tend to have specialization in early childhood/child development, the majority of those with bachelor's and master's degrees have majored in some area of education, but most likely not in early childhood education. Two thirds of administrative directors, however, have had some specific early childhood training (Whitebook, Howes, Phillips, 1989). Those with degrees outside of education ususally have a liberal arts major or a degree in the field of human services, such as social work or speech therapy.

While those directors who come to the role with college degrees outside of early childhood education are likely to hold a public school teaching certificate, educational standards for directors set by state agencies responsible for licensing child care centers are relatively low. They commonly do not require that directors have a bachelor's degree and usually do not offer an administrator/supervisor certificate.

In a recent study of New England supervisors, Caruso (1989) found that about half had enrolled in a college level course in supervision while 66% had taken, at least, a workshop in supervision. While in some states, licensing requirements stipulate that directors must take a course in day care administration, such courses may or may not include training in supervision. (Morgan, 1989). Directors, however, draw on a wide range of previous experiences to help them with their supervision.

The organizational hierarchy of early childhood programs is relatively simple, for there are few intermediary positions between teacher and administrator. Individuals accepting directorship roles are likely to come from the classroom ranks of teacher or head teacher. It is also common for elementary school teachers in public schools to leave their jobs to become directors of their own centers.

There appears to be a sizeable turnover rate among directors, although they have been employed in their current centers longer than most teachers in them. Approximately 60% of those in supervisory roles in New England day care programs have been in their positions for five years or less, (Caruso, 1989) while near the same percentage have had between 5-15 years or more total supervisory experience. Zinsser (1986) reported that 59% of directors in New York State and 27% of directors in New York City, where salaries are higher, had been in their programs three years or less. Almost half of Illinois directors (Jorde-Bloom, 1989) have been in their present positions for less than four years although they have 10 years experience in the early childhood field. As a group, directors tend to have a long term commitment to the field; their average tenure in a center is approximately five and one-half years (Whitebook, Howes and Phillips, 1989).

The turnover rate among directors is characteristic of child care workers in general who have among the highest turnover rates of any profession attributed in large part to low salaries. The average annnual staff turnover rate reported in the National Child Care Staffing Study is 41%. Wages for administrative directors average $9.85 an hour (40-hour week, 52 week year) substantially higher than those of teachers who average $5.35 hourly or $9,363 annually (Whitebook, Howes, & Phillips, 1989) (See Table 1).

Staff

The number of staff members supervised by a director varies according to the age and number of children served. Staff-child ratios are established by state licensing agencies. Most typically, day care programs have between 1-5 full-time staff members and 1-5 part-time staff. Part-time paid and volunteer staff may work for part of a day or

only on certain days of the week. Staff members range in age from under 18 years to over 65 years. In general, child care staff are young and female, more than 50% between the ages of 18-30, of which one-third are members of minorities (Whitebook, Howes & Phillips, 1989).

Table 1: Comparison of Characteristics of Day Care Directors and Public School Principals

	DAY CARE DIRECTORS (NE)	ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS	HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
a)	AGE 21% under 30 (Whitebook, 1989) 70% under 46	47 yrs. (Doud, 1989)	83% 35 - 54 yrs. (Pellicer, 1988)
b)	SEX 6% M 94% F (Whitebook, 1989	80% M 20 F (Doud, 1989)	88% M 12% F (Pellicer, 1988)
c)	RACE 80% White 20% Minorities (Whitebook, 1989)	90% White 5% Hispanic 4% Black (Doud, 1989)	94% White 4% Black 2% Hispanic .1% Amer. Inc. .4% Asian (Pellicer, 1988)
d)	EDUCATION 8% less than h.s. 20% h.s. diploma 44% some college 42% BA/BS or more (Whitebook, 1989)	2% only BS 68% Master's 20% Sixth-year 10% Doctorate (Doud, 1989)	99% MA 38% CAS or Ph.D. (Pellicer, 1988)
e)	MAJORS AS/AA-usually in ECE/Ch. Dev. BS/BA - usually in some area of Education	49% - BS in Elem Ed 51% - BA in Liberal Art and other Ed	BS/BA Sciences, Social Sciences, Phys. Ed. Humanities, Education (Pellicer, 1988)

Outside of Ed. Liberal Arts Human Services (Caruso, 1986)	(i.e., Special, Business, Math, Social Studies Ed.) (Caruso, 1989)	Grad. degrees tend to be in Ed. Admin. (Caruso, 1989)
f) CERTIFICATION 16% early childhood credential (Whitebook, 1989)	94% Cert. as Principal 90% Also Cert. as Teacher (Doud, 1989)	100% certified in school administration 46% certified in 3 areas (Caruso, 1989)
g) EXPERIENCE		
Teaching 82% prior e.c. experience (Whitebook) As Director 43% super. 9-15% yrs (NE) Present Position 5.5 yrs.	Teaching 83% exper. as Teacher 67% Exper. as AP Teacher 66.7% Exper. as AP As Principal 13 yrs. in role Present Position 7 yrs.	Teaching 7 - 9 yrs 61% come from AP As Principal 10-14 yrs Present Position 50%, 5 yrs. or less
h) SALARY $9.45 per hour $20,488 (Whitebook, 1989)	$39,988 (Doud, 1989)	50% earn $40 - 54,999 (Pellicer, 1989)
i) TEACHING RESPONSIBILITIES Often	No	No
j) HELP WITH SUPERVISION 60% (NE) Ass't Director Head Teacher Program/Exec. Director (Caruso, 1989)	Some Ass't Principals(32%) (Doud, 1989) District-wide directors and specialists	Yes Ass't Principals Department Heads Deans Subject area coord. and specialists system-wide directors (Caruso, 1989)

Programs are likely to have staff who have been employed in them for 2 years or less and much less likely to have staff working in them for 7 years or more. A typical program may have one or two staff members with little or no teaching experience, one or two who have 3-5 years experience, and one or two individuals who have more than 5 years teaching experience. Experience varies by job title. Twenty-nine percent of teacher and 58% of assistants have been teaching in child care three years or less (Whitebook, Howes & Phillips, 1989).

The education level of classroom staff varies from those with less than a high school diploma to those few who have training beyond a master's degree. It is important to note, however, that more than half of the assistant teachers and almost three-quarters of teachers in the National Child Care Staffing Study had some college background (Whitebook, Howes & Phillips, 1989). There does not appear to be consensus in the field as to whether staff should or need to have graduated from college; however, staff members with both specific training in early childhood/child development and formal education are highly sought after.

State boards of education which certify public school teachers are beginning to offer early childhood teaching certificates; however, such certificates often cover a wide range of age levels and are no guarantee that individuals holding them are well-educated and trained to work with children under the age of five. State agencies which license day care centers set qualifications for staff but do not, on the whole, issue teaching certificates to staff.

Day care center classroom staff include head teachers and teachers and paraprofessionals such as aides and assistants. Nurses, nutritionists, family counselors, social workers, speech therapists, and psychologist are

among support staff who may work in a program who require time, attention, and supervision from the director.

Programs, depending on their size, often have non-classroom support staff such as cooks, kitchen aides, bus drivers, custodians, housekeepers, and landscapers as well as those who provide clerical and administrative assistance to a program such as secretaries, bookkeepers, and office assistants (see Table 2).

TABLE 2: Comparison of Characteristics of Teachers at Three Levels of Schooling

	DAY CARE	ELEMENTARY SCHOOL	HIGH SCHOOL
a)	AGE 50+% under 30 yrs. (Whitebook, 1989)	41 (NEA, 1987)	41 (NEA, 1987)
b)	SEX 97% F 34% M (Whitebook, 1989)	86% F 14% M (NEA, 1987)	47% F 53% M (NEA, 1987)
c)	RACE 68% W 32% Minorities (Whitebook, 1989)	90% W 10% Minorities (NEA, 1987)	90% W 10% Minorities (NEA, 1987)
d)	EDUCATIONAL LEVEL 4.7% less 21.1% his diploma 43.5% some college 30.7% BA/BS or more (Whitebook, 1989)	99% BA/BS 50% MA or 6th yr. (NEA, 1987)	99%, BA/BS 59% MA or 6th yr. (NEA, 1987)
e)	EXPERIENCE 29% 3 yrs. or less 19% 10 yrs. or more (Whitebook, 1989)	16 yrs. (The Carnegie Foundation, 1988)	16 yrs. The Carnegie Foundation, 1988)

f)	CERTIFICATION only 25% cert. in some 7% ec certification 2% CDA credential (Whitebook, 1989)	92% fully certified (NEA, 1987)	92% fully certified (NEA, 1987)
g)	SALARY $9,363 (FT) (Whitebook, 1989)	$27,412 (FT) (The Carnegie Foundation, 1988)	$28,699 (FT) (The Carnegue Foundation, 1988)
h)	NUMBER OF STAFF 15 Teachers (Whitebook, 1989)	24 Teachers (NEA, 1987)	64 Teachers (NEA, 1987)
i)	SUPERVISEES Head Teachers Teachers/Caregivers Administrators Ass't. Director Center Coordinator Site/Unit Directors Paraprofessionals Aides, helpers Ass'ts. Volunteers Other Nutritionist Home visitors Nurse Family workers Social Workers Speech therapists Psychologists Community Developer Outreach specialist Parent Coordinator Non-professionals Maid Painter Bookkeeper Custodian Landscaper Secretary Cook Housekeeper Purchaser File clerk (Caruso, 1986)	Teachers and itinerant teacher Other Professionals Speech pathologists Social workers Speech therapists School psychiatrist Nurse Other Teacher Assistants Aides Playground super Kitchen staff Assistant Principal (Caruso, 1989)	Teachers Administrators Ass't. Principal Directors Housemaster Curriculum Coord. Deans Counselors Other professionals Social Workers Psychologists Speech pathologists Librarian Others Aides Secretaries Custodians Housekeeper Cafeteria workers Security guard Part-time coaches (Caruso, 1989)

Context

Day care centers are licensed facilities in which care is provided to 13 or more children under the age of 13, generally for up to 12 hours each day, five or more days each week, on a year-round basis.

Although some day care programs have long histories and stability within a community, the majority have been in operation for 10 years or less (Caruso, 1982). In a recent study of New England programs, Caruso found that 27% of programs have been operating for 5 years or less. It is not uncommon for programs to faulter due to lack of funding.

Programs serve various age levels and types of children; infants and toddlers, pre-schoolers, and school-age children. Some serve children with special needs and children who are bi-lingual. The size of programs has grown over the last ten years to an average of 84 children (Whitebook, Howes & Phillip's, 1989). A typical program serves children on a full or part-time basis. Some programs have options where children can enroll for part of a day or for certain days of the week (see Table 6).

Director's Role and Responsibilities

Administration and supervision of a program is the responsibility of the director; however, some directors may have a dual role as director/head teacher, which means that teaching is an integral part of the job. Other individuals share their administrative and supervisory duties with a co-director who is responsible for the program for a different part of the day and some directors are responsible for more than one center or may work in a program that is part of a larger organization such as a corporate chain.

The director's role and responsibilities cover a range of areas which include: administration, supervision, teaching, working with board members, and working with parents and community members. Maintaining compliance with

laws, ordering materials for classrooms as well as kitchen supplies, recruiting and enrolling children, recruiting staff, and maintaining records for various agencies are among the scope of duties within the broad areas.

Supervision

Supervision, then, is an important, but only one component of the director's role. As programs are relatively small and as directors often teach, they have frequent contact with staff. They often hire staff and provide them with initial training and program orientation. Supervision of staff is usually informal, with directors offering friendly advice through on-going discussion of problems and concerns. Working side by side with staff members, particularly in smaller programs, enables directors to enjoy a high degree of credibility among staff.

Modeling effective teaching/caregiving behavior is a particularly significant aspect of the director's supervisory role, given the great variability of the experience and education levels of caregivers. Weekly staff meetings, training workshops, curriculum planning, and team building are some of the supervisory activities of directors who also provide staff with emotional support and who mediate conflicts among staff (see Table 3).

Supervision also includes observing staff and children and evaluating staff; however, it is not as formalized as public school supervision due in part to the status of early childhood as an emerging profession; the large number of proprietary centers and the fact that many programs have yet to develop personnel policies; the lack of state regulations which stipulate training in supervision for directors and the small size of programs.

Directors are not likely to use models of supervision often employed in public schools for many of the above reasons. Also, because of the early

childhood focus on child development, it is also more likely that supervisory discussions between directors and staff members are based on children's behavior and its implications for teaching/caregiving rather than on generic teaching competencies which is often the practice in public school settings.

TABLE 3: Specific Supervisory Tasks Reported By New England Day Care Directors (Caruso, 1989)

- interviewing, hiring, evaluating and firing staff
- observing teachers interacting with children and giving them feedback
- developing curriculum
- leading staff meetings
- encouraging staff to attend conferences, workshops
- scheduling children and staff
- planning and conducting in-service training and staff orientation
- dealing with parents and community
- conferring with staff informally and formally
- recording tuition payments
- reading lesson plans
- assisting staff in getting materials
- modeling how to work with the children and parents
- hiring substitute teachers and substitutes for non-teaching staff
- making certain each staff member understands her job description
- encouraging, supporting, and rewarding staff
- maintaining and updating all staff and children's records
- making sure goals are implemented
- keeping parents informed about concerns/problems
- maintaining regulations
- observing children and making recommendations to staff
- handling payroll
- team teaching with staff
- mediating conflicts among staff

Supervisory Concerns of Early Childhood Directors

One of the most pressing problems directors face is finding and keeping qualified staff. There is considerable competition among programs in the recruitment of staff members. Because of the low salaries associated with child care and more attractive options in other sectors, child care has become a less desirable option for those who might have considered working with children as their profession. Because of the high turnover rate, supervisors are then constantly in the mode of recruiting and training new staff.

Not only is it difficult to keep staff to give a program greater stability, the diversity of staff presents a great challenge to the supervisor. Staff members represent a wide range of age, experience, and education levels and also come from culturally and socio-economically diverse backgrounds. Early childhood supervisors become frustrated from dealing with young, immature staff who have little understanding of professionalism and who may refuse to listen to an older, wiser supervisor or from confronting older staff who do not share the same philosophy and who have little respect for supervisors who are younger than they are.

Directors report a lack of time to adequately supervise staff and indicate that a support system whereby they could receive help, get ideas, and talk with other supervisors would be beneficial to them in their work. (See Table 4). In assessing their personal supervisory needs, it is interesting to note that a number of directors point to a need for greater toughness, assertiveness and confidence in dealing with staff members (Caruso, 1989).

TABLE 4: Supervisory, Problems Identified By New England Day Care Directors (Caruso, 1989)

STAFF	SELF	OTHER
- inexperienced staff	- not being a peer; getting across that I'm in charge	- finding time
- young, immature staff	- keeping lines of communication open	- low salaries
- different levels of staff education and training	- lack of toughness to correct or evaluate negatively	- problems of physical plant
- staff with little understanding of professionalism		- being responsible for a program in another building
- staff turnover; keeping good qualified staff	- too hard on self	- finding money to pay staff what they deserve
- diversity of staff ages 18-72	- need to be more assertive	- location; responsible for county with 13 head teachers, programs spread over 400 sq. miles
- 20-25 yrs old; high level of transition at this time	- more background to draw upon	
- hiring quality staff	- conducting effective staff meetings	
- firing staff who do not meet expectations	- motivating people to change	
- confronting the marginal performer	- time to relax	
- staff who do not share own philosophy		
- staff keep repeating bad habits		
- conflicts among staff		
- teacher absenteeism		
- finding good substitutes		
- scheduling staff		

What Do Directors Find Rewarding from Their Supervision?

The rewards of supervision are many (see Table 5). They appear to reflect the values of cooperation, cohesiveness, development and excellence. Although unhappy with their poor salaries and benefits, child care workers report high levels of job satisfaction in terms of their relationships with supervisors and co-workers and opportunities for challenge and autonomy (Whitebook, Howes, & Phillips, 1989), suggesting a positive working atmosphere within programs between directors and staff members.

TABLE 5: Supervisory Rewards Reported by New England Day Care Directors (Caruso, 1989)

PROGRAM	SELF	STAFF	CHILDREN
- seeing fruits of a well-run program - seeing a program grow to excellence - atmosphere of professionalism - more refined program - people anxious to enroll children in center because its reputation - seeing the center become a unit - knowing we have a quality program	- positive feedback from parents - not having to do everything myself - good feedback from staff - having staff respect me - seeing my suggestions being used - pleasure of having a successful day with kids - feeling sense of accomplishment - that I can supervise myself -encouraging staff's creative problem solving - knowing that staff can come to you at any time - coming to mutual decisions with staff - knowing the children better	- positive peer relationships - bonding among staff - witnessing the enthusiasm and feeling of success staff has - staff wanting to improve - staff developing their teaching skills - knowing that staff understands goals of the center - watching a staff member take over for me - seeing staff gain in confidence and develop a strong sense of self-development to their potential - watching a relaxed confident teacher - see staff satisfaction	- happy parents and children - watching children and parents become close to teachers - positive changes in dealing with children

Some Distinguishing Characteristics of Day Care Supervision

The characteristics and elements of day care supervisors and supervision have a number of distinguishing and unique features:

Supervision is Clinical

Supervision in day care programs tends to be intimate, personal, and informal. It is face to face, on-sight supervision wherein the director is close to the children, teachers, and parents. Directors thus have an intimate knowledge of the demands staff face and can use that information to increase the effectiveness of their supervision.

The frequency of contact that comes with close supervision in a humanistic setting may give directors greater credibility than their counterparts in the public schools and may foster a working partnership between directros and teacher/caregivers. However, it can also blur the line between supervisor and supervisee and make it harder to carry out some decisions, especially those related to personnel.

Supervision Takes Place in a Female World

Women directors supervise women staff. The significance women place on their ability to care for and nurture others; the importance they place on relationships; and their ability to experience another's needs and feelings as their own (Gilligan, 1982) may come into play within the supervisory context. Such attributes may prove to be both assets and liabilities in supervision; however, little is known about the implications of the female world of supervision given the paucity of research on this topic.

Supervision Takes Place Within a Climate of Uncertainty

Directors cannot be certain that they will have the staff or the funds to operate a program. As programs, themselves, are often fairly new, supervisors may find themselves establishing basic routines and procedures, developing job descriptions and curriculum, and orienting, training, and re-training staff. Also, given the various program and attendance options, staff and children may change from day to day. Due to the turnover rate of directors, a program may not have stability in that position either. All of these factors create unusual pressure on individuals in supervisory positions.

Staff Development and Training is Key to Early Childhood Supervision

For reasons previously mentioned, the staff development and training component of the supervisory role of the day care director is of critical importance. Directors, required to be more self-sufficient than their public school counterparts, most likely are less able to draw upon outside resources to conduct training sessions. Required to do the training themselves, they need to have sufficient knowledge of staff development concepts and models as well as training skills.

Directors Have Considerable Influence and Autonomy

Although some programs are part of larger organizations such as Head Start or corporate chains and directors often report to Boards of Directors, by and large, directors have considerable autonomy, unencumbered by the bureaucracies characteristic of school systems.

This means that they have substantial flexibility and leeway in regard to personnel issues and in program development. Directors, for example, can

hire and fire their own staff members, can assist in the creation and development of a program's curriculum as well as personnel policies related to staff development and evaluation and contractual stipulations.

The opportunity to develop a program that is consonant with their personal philosophy, often from scratch, is a motivating factor which keeps many directors on the job despite poor salaries and benefits. On the other hand, directors work in isolation and have few people to turn to for supervisory support.

Early Childhood Programs are not Valued by Society

The lack of importance that our society places on children and on early childhood programs, as a whole, has implications for supervision and program quality.

Low salaries and inadequate benefits for day care staff and directors has led to low morale, creating the acute turnover problem noted earlier. It is shocking, for example, that despite gains in overall formal educational and experience during the last decade, child care teaching staff are paid less in 1988 than in 1977. When adjusted for inflaction, teachers' earnings actually fell by 27 percent (Whitebook, Howes, Phillips, 1989) during that time period.

Coupled with this salary issue is the question of staff qualifications. In terms of supervisory training, for example, states do not require that directors have coursework specifically in supervision and staff development. At present, directors may only be required to have the equivalent of two years of post-secondary work or as few as 18 hours in child-related course work (Spodek, 1986).

The recent findings of the National Child Care Staffing Study point to the importance of formal education and specialized training in early

childhood education in relation to interacting effectively with children. Although 37% of teachers and 44% of directors have had some college level coursework (Whitebook, Howes & Phillips, 1989), can state licensing agencies which regulate programs raise education requirements for directors and staff given the low salaries and the existing problem of filling present vacancies?

Although the entire educational community feels undervalued by our society, the problem is particularly acute in day care programs.

The Elementary Principal

The typical elementary principal today is a 47 year old white male. Although there continues to be an increase in the percent of women principals, women in these roles are more likely to be found in schools of less than 400 students and in urban areas. Although the percent of women Hispanic principals has shown a slight increase in the past ten years (from .9 to 3.5%), the percent of black principals has actually declined during the same period (Doud, 1989).

Nationally, elementary principals are likely to hold certification as a principal, while nine out of ten are certified as a teacher as well (Doud, 1989). The majority of elementary principals hold at least a master's degree, although the expected level of education continues to climb. In some regions, elementary principals are expected to hold a sixth year certificate and even a doctorate.

In a small sample of Connecticut principals surveyed by the author, he found that almost half had majored in elementary education at the undergraduate level, while slightly more than half had bachelor's degrees in

liberal arts subjects as well as in other areas of education such as special education (Caruso, 1989). Advanced degrees tended to be in administration and supervision or curriculum and instruction. It is likely that Connecticut elementary principals holding sixth year certificates in Administration and Supervision have had a course in supervision. While specific course requirements for sixth year programs vary according to university and state certification requirements, it is probable at the national level that supervision courses are part of advanced degree programs in Administration and Supervision and are at least encouraged by state regulations.

The National Association of Elementary School Principals (NEASP) reports that the majority of elementary principals come into their roles from teaching positions, although men are twice as likely as women "to have had secondary teaching experience, three times as likely to have been a secondary level assistant principal, and about 23 times more likely to have been a coach (27.8 percent) than were women (1.2 percent)." (Doud, 1989, p. 40). Twenty-one per cent of elementary principals have taught for at least 10 years before becoming a principal and the typical elementary principal has been in that role for at least 13 years, and 7 years in his/her present position. The average salary paid to K-8 principals is 39, 988 per year and more than half of today's principals are employed for 11 months or more (Doud, 1989) (see Table 1).

Staff

Elementary principals usually supervise all staff in a school, the number, depending, of course, on the size of the school. The mean number of classroom teachers in an elementary school today is 24, and on the average, elementary schools have five additional professional personnel (NEA, 1987).

In addition to teachers, elementary principals supervise a wide range of staff from certified professionals to non-professionals. These include: speech pathologists, nurses, librarians, social workers, itinerant specialist teachers as well as secretaries and clerical assistants, custodians, bus drivers, food service workers, and classroom aides (see Table 2).

The National Education Association (NEA) reports (1987) that 69% of all teachers are female and 90% are white. The average age of all teachers is 41. Ninety-nine per cent of teachers have a bachelor's degree, 50% holding a master's degree or 6th year degree and, on the average, they have 16 year's experience (NEA, 1987). Similar to this national profile of teachers as a whole, the typical elementary teacher is white, female and in her forties. Public school teachers meet certification requirements and it is not unusual for them to be certified in more than one area (see Table 2).

In 1987-88, the average salary of elementary teachers was $27,412, $1,287 less than their secondary counterparts, for a work year of 180 days, a number which varies slightly from state to state. On the average, elementary teachers work with 60 students per day. Thirty-one percent have between 4-6 preparation periods per week (The Carnegie Foundation, 1988). Although the notion of part-time elementary teachers is beginning to catch on, teachers are, by and large, full-time employees.

Context

Nationally, there is great variability in the size of elementary schools as well as the grade levels they include. The median number of students at the elementary level is 472, ranging from as few as 24 to as many as 1600 (Doud, 1989). Some elementary schools include grades K-8, although the most common configurations are K-5 or K-6, oftentimes determined by enrollment, financial considerations or philosophy regarding the relationship between the

elementary and secondary levels. Public schools are beginning to include pre-k classrooms and thus may serve children from age 3 to age 13. The mean number of students in an elementary classroom is 24 (NEA, 1987) (see Table 6).

In the recent past, many elementary schools have closed due to lack of enrollment, fiscal considerations, an absence of public support, and/or the changing face of neighborhoods. By and large, they tend to be stable institutions, except perhaps in large cities.

Elementary schools today are serving an increasing number of at-risk pupils, creating pressure for more special needs programs. Waves of immigrants from other lands require bi-lingual or second-language instruction. The trend toward a majority of minority students in urban areas requires curricular changes; and the inclusion of pre-school programs is expected to affect the curriculum and organization of schools, all of which have implications for the supervision of instruction.

Elementary Principal's Roles and Responsibilities

The job of the elementary principal covers a broad range of areas and includes tasks related to budgeting and fiscal matters; parent and community relations; staff and personnel issues; program and curriculum development; meeting student needs and student discipline; the use and maintenance of the physical plant; working with colleagues and central administration as part of a district, and adhering to local, state and federal regulations.

Supervision

The nature and frequency of supervision carried out by elementary principals depends on requirements established by a school district's collective bargaining agreement and other factors such as school size and the

Table 6: Context for Supervision at Three Levels of Schooling

DAY CARE	ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS	HIGH SCHOOLS
ORGANIZED by age-level	by age and grade level	by age, subject and grade level
ENROLLMENT 70% programs - 3-50 Children, low 3-660	445 ave.	884 ave.
AGE LEVELS & TYPES infants to age 13 all types	usually ages 5-10 all types	usually 14-17, up to 22 yrs. all types
AVERAGE CLASS SIZE 3 infants to adult 5 toddlers to adult 10 preschooler to 1 adult (H.E.W., 1980)	24 (NEA, 1987)	25 (NEA, 1987)
YEARS IN OPERATION 50% 1-10 yrs. 27% 5 yrs. or less (Caruso, 1982, 1989)	long term	long term
OPERATION HOURS 75% - 9-12 hrs per day small % 24 hrs per day (Caruso, 1982, 1989)	6 hrs per day with after school programs and community programs	6 hrs per day with after school and community programs
ACCREDITATION NAEYC - voluntary	some regional assoc. voluntary	regional assoc. usually required
ATTENDANCE OPTIONS some children full-time every day, some part-day day care all year	required by state law full day, 180 days, except for kindergarten	required by state law, full-day, 180 days, some work-study
UNIONIZED Some	Yes	Yes
INTERMEDIARY POSITIONS Assistant Director Ed. Coordinator Head Teacher	Assistant Principal	Assistant Principal's Deans, Department Heads, Supervisors/Directors

extent to which a principal has help with supervision. The principal's attitude toward supervision and personal concept of supervision are also particularly significant factors.

By and large, elementary principals do not have regular teaching responsibilities but may find themselves teaching a class if no substitute teachers are available. Most do not have assistant principals to help them with supervision, but may receive assistance in supervising art, music and physical education, and other specialist teachers from district-wide directors, supervisors or coordinators. Also, due to the creation of new teacher leadership roles, teacher leaders, mentors, or teacher specialists may also provide some supervisory assistance.

Supervision in elementary schools is formal and informal. It may take the form of drop-in classroom visits by the principal and casual discussions with staff as well as efforts by the principal to be visible in the school by walking throughout the building at least once a day. Formal supervision consists of goal-setting conferences with teachers, classroom observations and follow-up discussions. Video-taping of lessons for use in conferences, collecting and reviewing teacher lesson plans, monitoring pupil achievement by reviewing test scores and report cards, and using the district's procedure for evaluating teacher performance are common ways that principals carry out their supervisory responsibilities.

Elementary principals with a narrow view of supervision tend to equate it with teacher evaluation and base their supervisory behavior primarily on evaluation guidelines found in collective bargaining agreements. District contractual requirements vary greatly with some stipulating that non-tenured teachers be formally observed and evaluated as often as six to eight times per year while tenured teachers may be observed one to two times per year or

as little as once every three years. Principals with a broader definition of supervision are likely to include staff and curriculum development activities as part of their instructional supervisory responsibilities and use the district contract as a starting point, a baseline for supervisory practices. Below, is a description of the supervision portion of the elementary principal's job compiled from a survey of Connecticut elementary principals in which they were asked to identify the supervisory tasks connected with their position (see Table 7).

Table 7: Supervisory Tasks Identified By Elementary Principals (Caruso, 1989)

- observe classes informally
- hire new staff
- monitor pupil achievement and share results with staff (review test results, student work (plays, presentations, written work, report cards, etc.)
- encourage leadership among staff
- use staff meetings to promote a vision for the school and to solve problems
- evaluate teachers formally in accordance with district policy
- monitor deficient teachers more fully and completely than the remainder of the staff
- update the staff with newest techniques to improve instruction
- monitor curriculum implementation
- maintain an on-going, open dialogue with staff
- conduct goal-setting conferences with teachers at the beginning of the year and year-end conferences to evaluate success
- involve staff in decision making regarding staff development and staff business
- review teacher lesson plans
- design and implement new programs to increase student achievement
- maintain a positive, professional environment in the school

Supervisory Needs and Concerns

Like their counterparts at the early childhood and secondary levels, elementary principals report a lack of adequate time to carry out supervision, including staff development activities and suggest that help in the form of an assistant would enable them to do a better job supervising the large numbers of teachers for which they are responsible. Although the number of assistant principals have increased by 13% in the last 10 years, they tend to be in elementary schools that enroll more than 600 pupils (Doud, 1989).

Other needs and problems expressed by elementary principals surveyed by the author (see Table 8) identify areas for the additional training of

TALBE 8: Supervisory Needs/Problems Reported by Elementary Principals (Caruso, 1989)

NEEDS	PROBLEMS
- more time	- trust not always present
- more help; an assistant	- lack of time
- separate supervision from evaluation	- too many teachers to supervise
- a more effective evaluation tool	- getting teachers involved
- additional peer coaching programs	- too much paperwork
- more time for in-service	
- greater teacher participation in workshops	
- training in working with a consistent supervisory model	
- more help with staff development	
- learn more about effective management techniques	
- curriculum improvement	
- group development and group process skills	
- more wisdom	

principals, the knowing issue of how evaluation fits within or outside of supervision and the importance of staff development.

Supervisory Rewards

Rewards noted by elementary principals surveyed (See Table 9) tend to be other-person oriented, rather than self-centered. For example, observing successful and happy children, helping people to solve problems, seeing teachers improve were sources of satisfaction, reflecting similar values to those of day care directors and high school principals (see Table 12). Elementary principals, however, describe fewer rewards than day care directors which are dependent upon the interpersonal relationships of others to them, i.e. feedback from parents and staff, staff friendship and knowing the staff can come to me at any time (see Tables 5 and 9).

TABLE 9: Supervisory Rewards Reported by Elementary Principals (Caruso, 1989)

- a cooperative staff
- children who are successful
- seeing teachers improve
- seeing results in classrooms
- seeing new ideas in classrooms
- helping people to solve problems
- improved test scores
- happy children
- seeing teachers involved in peer coaching
- helping teachers to become more reflective
- engaging in professional dialogue about teaching
- improved instruction and effective opportunities for students

Unique Features of Elementary Supervision

Supervision in elementary schools differs from day care supervision in a number of ways.

Organizational Systems Impact on Supervision

Public elementary schools are part of larger district organizations. The principal's supervisory role(s) are affected/guided by the bureaucracy of the school system; by city, state, and federal laws, and by government agencies which fund school programs.

Elementary principals, in effect, have less autonomy than day care directors over their supervision. The school district itself sets certain supervisory expectations for principals from the superintendent of schools and through collective bargaining agreements, job descriptions and system-wide curricular and staff development activities.

Principals find themselves responding frequently to state and federal regulations. Often, this means developing programs which are imposed from sources outside of the school, completing paperwork required for local and state agencies and paying careful attention to the possible ramifications of laws related to program, staff and pupils. The increased complexity of the bureaucracy with which principals deal takes time away from instructional supervision and/or can influence the nature of supervision the principal carries out.

Elementary Schools are Stable Organizations

In comparison to day care programs, elementary schools, by and large, have long histories, low-staff turnover, and fairly steady pupil enrollments: Exceptions, however, are likely to be in communities, especially major cities which may be characterized by school closings, large scale transfers of staff and children, teacher shortages and political controversy.

As mentioned earlier, elementary teachers and principals are highly-educated, very experienced and middle-aged. The school day is very predictable, with established curricular and routines. The longevity of schools and the service of their staff members may enable principals to develop long range school improvement plans and to build cohesive staff relationships and positive community support.

On the other hand, the predictablity of schools and a maturing staff may engender a culture characterized by supervisory ritual and patterns, norms and values which, in fact, resist meaningful change. One of the major supervisory tasks of elementary principals is to motivate an aging and experienced staff and to develop and maintain a momentum toward continuing instructional improvement.

Much of Elementary Supervision is Teacher Evaluation

The focus of supervision in elementary schools is teacher evaluation, due in large part, to the history of public school supervision as inspection and the fact that elementary principals do not have adequate time or help to provide in-depth on-going instructional supervision of teaching staff as well as the supervision of other professionals, para-professionals and support staff. Also, the larger organizations within which principals work do little to reward or support them for the supervision which they do, including that which may go beyond evaluation.

As a part of this emphasis on evaluation, the focus of supervisory observations is teacher behavior, almost exclusively, with little attention given to children's behavior and classroom context. This practice places greater burden on the teacher and limits the perspective of the principal.

Supervisory tools used for observing in classrooms highlight generic teaching methods, often at the expense of attention to subject-matter content. This trend is evidenced by lists of generic teaching competencies drawn up by various states such as Connecticut and Texas for use in assessment procedures. Such tools are often viewed as practical, reasonable and efficient approaches as to observing and evaluating teachers. The attention to the teacher and to generic teaching methods in supervision in elementary schools may also be a reflection of elementary teacher training which has traditionally emphasized methods of teaching rather than subject content or child development.

Male Principals Supervise Female Teachers

From 1870 on, women teachers have outnumbered men in public elementary schools. After 1870, many more of those men remaining in education moved into higher status, higher-paying administrative/managerial positions than before. (Apple, 1986). Apple (1986) contends that patriarchal relations of authority and power developed in schools as a result of this division of labor according to gender. He further argues that once a profession is viewed as women's work, it is considered inferior and in need of greater control from the outside: the pressure on schools for greater rationalization and formalization resulted in an increase in administrative control of teaching and curricular.

The long history of authority relationships between male principals and female teachers, most likely, has had profound effects on the culture of supervision in elementary schools in terms of how principals view their roles and responsibilities, ways in which schools are organized and decisions about curriculum and personnel relationships.

Elementary principals, for example, were expected to be managers, not head teachers as in British primary schools or director/teachers as in day care programs. The psychological distancing between principals and teachers, the physical separation of the principal's office from classrooms and the membership of principals in administrative collective bargaining units are just a few of the outcomes from the notion of principal as manager of teachers which have, with other factors, contributed to the cynical attitudes teachers, and even principals, have of the supervisory process.

The excessive formalization of schools which Apple (1986) attributes, in part, to the feminization of teaching, has reached a point whereby neither principals nor teachers have much control over their work and is a basis for much of the literature which calls for the empowerment of teachers and school-based decision-making. This development is already resulting in the re-examination of supervising roles and relationships of principals and teachers in schools.

HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

High school principals are white, male and middle-aged. One out of eight principals is female. Female principals are more common on the West Coast, in larger communities and in public alternative high schools (Pellicer, Anderson, Keefe, Kelley, and McCleary, 1988).

Although the ages of high school principals vary widely, over the last 20 years, there is a decrease of principals under 35 and over 55 years of

age. Ninety-four percent of high school principals are white, 4% are black, and 2%, Hispanic. Although still small, the number of Hispanic principals has risen substantially during the last ten years. Non-white principals are likely to be found in larger communities, in the Southwest, and on the West Coast. Fifty percent of principals earn between $40,000-$54,000 per year: the majority of principals are over 40 years of age and receive a salary of $45,000 per year or more (Pellicer, et al., 1988).

The educational preparation of high school principals has increased steadily over the past twenty years, with almost all principals possessing a master's degree, which is an entry level qualification in most states. Thirty-eight percent have a specialist or higher academic degree beyond masters and thirteen percent of high school principals hold a doctorate. Baccalurate degrees held by high school principals are likely to be in the social sciences, physical education, the humanities, or education. (Pellicer, et al., 1988).

In the author's survey of Connecticut high school principals, (Caruso, 1989), he found that 36% held doctorates and 46% indicated that a 6th year certificate was the highest degree earned. The typical Connecticut high school principal is certified in a subject area as well as in administration; 46% are certified in three areas. Undergraduate degrees held by them were primarily in liberal arts subjects, while the majority of graduate degrees held were in administration. Thirty-one per cent indicated that their advanced degree was in Administration and Supervision, suggesting that at a minimum, one-third of them have had training in supervision.

High school principals have, on the average, 7-9 years teaching experience prior to becoming a principal. The most common route to the principalship is through the assistant principalship (61%). Fifty-two

percent of high school principals have also served as an athletic coach or department chairperson (46%). Principals tend to remain in the role for a long time (10-14 years); however, more than half of all principals have served 5 or fewer years in their present principalship (Pellicier, et al., 1988).

Staff

The mean number of classroom teachers in secondary schools is 64, with 11 additional professional personnel. The largest number of secondary teachers are in departments of English, mathematics, science, and social studies. More senior high teachers are male (53%) than middle/junior high (39%) or elementary teachers (14%) and their mean age is 41. Since 1976, there is trend toward older teachers. The racial composition of secondary teachers is not significantly different than that of all teachers, 90% white (NEA, 1987).

Although more that 99% of all teachers hold a bachelor's degree, proportionally more senior high teachers (58.5% than middle/junior high teachers (50.7%) or elementary teachers have earned a master's or 6th year diploma (NEA, 1987). Although all public school teachers have an average of 16 year's experience (The Carnegie Foundation, 1988), the percentage of secondary teachers (30%) with 20 or more years of full time teaching experience has exceeded the percentage of elementary (24.7%) teachers in this category (NEA, 1987). Fewer teachers have been hired by school systems in recent years..." The percentage of teachers with 10 or more years of service within their present systems has increased from 30-33% range maintained from 1966 through 1976, to a high of 60.6% in 1986, incidating that as relatively fewer teachers are being hired, higher percentages of teachers are remaining in their current systems." (NEA, 1987, p. 21).

The mean number of students they work with in a day is 114 (The Carnegie Foundation, 1988). They usually teach 5 periods a day and have, on the average, 25 pupils in a class. They work 180 days per year (NEA, 1987). Thirty percent of secondary teachers report that they have 4-6 preparation periods weekly and about 50% report 1-3 preparation periods weekly (The Carnegie Foundation, 1988). Seventy-seven percent of secondary teachers have 5 or more prep periods per week (NEA, 1987), more than their elementary counterparts.

High school principals supervise administrators, teachers, and other professional staff as well as non-professional staff. Administrators supervised include assistant principals, housemasters, department heads, counselors, and directors (see Table 2).

Context

High schools usually serve adolescents between the ages of 14-18, who are enrolled in grades 9-12, however, there is variability in age levels with some high schools having grades 10-12 only and others, grades 7-12, depending on the district organization. With recent consolidation in school districts, it is not unusual to have elementary grades housed in high school buildings. High schools also frequently have programs for young adults with special needs who may be up to 22 years of age.

There are different types of high schools, each with their own mission (Alexander, 1971). Comprehensive high schools are usually large schools offering a broad range of programs ranging from college prep to vocational education. General high schools are usually smaller than comprehensive high schools and provide a program of study that is narrower in focus, with fewer programs, and offerings commonly devoted to an academic program. Specialized high schools are usually geared to meet the needs of a special group of

students such as those talented in the sciences or the performing arts. Vocational high schools prepare students to enter into specific occuptions. Public high schools in rural districts may be very small and enroll fewer than 100 students while in large metropolitan areas high schools may be as large as 7,000 pupils.

High schools are usually organized by department, each with a department head charged with the responsibility of providing leadership for that unit. Department chairpersons may be administrators or teachers with administrative responsibility.

Roles and Responsibilities

When asked to describe the supervisory tasks and activities connected with their role, Connecticut high school principals (Caruso, 1989) use terms such as assessing, monitoring, planning, budgeting, problem-solving, and communicating. They viewed themselves as being responsible for the entire school; personnel, building, and program (see Table 10).

Table 10: Supervisory Tasks Identified by of High School Principals

- evaluating staff
- supervising administrators
- dealing with student discipline problems
- working with staff to improve the learning process and student performance
- implementing the instructional program
- supervising extra-curricular activities, including athletics
- providing curriculum leadership (assessing and modifying the instructional program)
- ensuring the appropriate educational-instructional atmosphere in the school
- developing individual, department, school, and district-wide goals
- seeing that the building is properly maintained
- planning professional development programs
- encouraging risk-taking and stimulating school improvement
- resolving conflicts between parents and the school
- evaluating "at risk" teachers
- implementing the school philosphy
- developing positive relations with the public

It is interesting to note that in a survey of principals of 152 outstanding secondary schools in 38 states, they identified instructional supervision, evaluation of teacher performance and curriculum development as the three most important job dimensions according to the emphasis they actually placed on each dimension (Mangieri and Arnn, 1985) (See chart below). Each of the selected dimensions are critical aspects of school supervision.

RANKING OF JOB DIMENSIONS BY PRINCIPALS
(MOST IMPORTANT TO LEAST IMPORTANT)

1st	Instructional supervision	10th	Organizations and extracurricular activities
2nd	Evaluation of teacher performance	11th	Utilization of special staff
3rd	Curriculum development	12th	Working with central office
4th	Staffing	13th	Personal handling of student adjustment problems
5th	Community involvement	14th	Safety regulations
6th	Troubleshooting and problem solving	15th	Collegial contacts
7th	Fiscal control	16th	Racial and ethnic group problems
8th	Dealing with student discipline matters	17th	Working with unions
9th	Individualized student development		

Supervision

Supervision carried out by high school principals is ongoing, formal and informal. The methods used, the source of data, and the frequency of supervision is dependent on who is being supervised, the size of the school, and the principal him/herself. All high school principals in the author's Connecticut survey (Caruso, 1989) have help with their supervision by assistant principals, department heads, deans, subject area coordinators or supervisors and/or system-wide directors.

Informal supervision of all staff consists of walking around the building, conversing with teachers, administrators, support staff and students. Some principals make a point of maintaining daily contact with

as many teachers and administrators as possible. Informal supervision may also consist of unannounced brief classroom observations, observing adminstrators at work, and receiving unsolicited feedback about staff from students, parents and others.

Formal supervision may take the form of goal-sharing conferences with administrators and teachers and using a clinical supervisory cycle, which includes pre- and post conferences and a classroom observation period. This cycle is ususally part of a systemwide evaluation process. Most likely an evaluation instrument is used. Principals attend department meetings. They also analyze test data and student attendance data to obtain information about the strengths and weaknesses of the school.

In large high schools, assistant principals and department chairpersons are likely to have the primary responsibility for supervising teachers, with the principal brought in to supervise teachers "at risk". In such schools, the principal directly supervises administrators, each of whom may be assigned the responsibility of supervising a portion of the staff. Supervision may also be assigned according to areas; for example, one assistant principal may be responsible for substitute teachers, one for discipline, one for attendance etc.

There is great variability in the frequency of classroom observations of teachers, often dependent on whether a teacher is tenured or not. Some principals report visiting all teachers three times per year, 10 minutes per class; others report making anywhere from 2-7 classroom observations per year for all teachers (Caruso, 1989).

Supervisory Problems/Needs

Supervisory needs and problems expressed in the author's Connecticut survey (Caruso, 1989) clustered in several areas: the demands and constraints

of the job of high school principals which limit their ability to supervise staff effectively; problems with teachers and other staff; personal needs and dissatisfaction with the systems evaluation requirements (See Table 11) All principals in the survey complained of a lack of adequate time to carry out supervision.

The problems identified suggest that much needs to be done to support high school principals so that they can carry out their supervisory responsibilities. It appears that their job design and constraints from the school system actually impede them from fulfilling their supervisory obligations (see Table 11).

Rewards of Supervision

Supervisory rewards of high school principals are oriented toward staff and instructional improvement (see Table 12). Despite job constraints which often keep them from being in classrooms as much as they would like, principals derive much satisfaction from observing fine teaching and from working with successful teachers.

Unique Features of the High School Supervision

High Schools are Large Organizations

The high school principal has the responsibility of managing a large organization. The sheer size of some high school creates innumerable demands and pressures on principals for their time and attention throughout the day, making it near impossible for them to carry out any in-class supervision of instruction.

Table 11: Supervisory Needs/Problems of High School Principals, (Caruso, 1989)

TEACHERS	PERSONAL	SYSTEM	JOB DESIGN
- teachers not experimenting - greater cooperation - not creative enough - motivating the experienced, tired and non-caring teacher	- a younger mind & body - following up with suggestions made to teachers - a better level of understanding about staff development - more admin. training - time management skills - identification of methods to motivate kids - difficult to break with old habits of subjective supervision	- tenure & non-tenure plans differ - teachers on a 1, 2, 3, yr. eval. plan with diff. deadlines - more money for prof. development - more time for in-service - more assistance - a more consistent district policy toward teacher performance and expectations - more power to remove those who are hanging on, protected by union tenure - more input into contract negotiations regarding the working conditions of teachers	- time - less management of building - imposition from central office - too many management tasks - assistance with daily routines - less attention discipline & attendance - less paperwork - daily crises interfere with supervision - less esphasis on police role - responsible for evaluating everyone, impossible!

Table 12: Supervisory Rewards of High School Principals (Caruso, 1989)

- seeing an excellent teacher presenting great material and getting results
- getting to know teachers as individuals
- working with fine educators
- having teachers tell me my suggestions were successfully implemented
- increased teacher effectiveness
- getting poor teachers to leave
- improvement of instruction
- curriculum followed more closely
- staff members express satisfaction with supervisory process
- seeing teachers try new approaches
- watching key people teach
- knowing staff believe in themselves
- knowing that kids are benefiting
- student success
- providing meaningful experiences for students
- a productive plant with positive results
- a school atmosphere where everyone succeeds
- supervision keeps us on target

The delegation of supervision to intermediaries removes principals from one source of possible satisfaction; personal dialogue with teachers about teaching and students. Another result of this distancing from the classroom is that principals who may be resolving crises or dealing with student discipline problems, are not visible to the teaching staff. This perceived lack of availability of principals to teachers can negatively affect principal-staff interpersonal relationships. Furthermore, if a principal is brought into the supervisory process only to work with teachers who are "at risk", then he/she may be viewed as supervisor/disciplinarian of teachers, breaking down relationships even further.

High School Principals Supervise Administrators

In addition to the responsibility for supervising or for arranging for the supervision of the teaching and non-teaching staff, high school principals supervise a cadre of administrators and quasi-administrators who work more directly with teachers.

Although high school principals are most likely to have had some training in supervision, have they been prepared to supervise the administrative staff? This supervision frequently entails group supervision, an aspect often neglected in supervision texts and course work. Since others observe instruction and confer directly with teachers, perhaps a role of the principal should be to train department heads and other supervisors in methods of clinical supervision.

Staff Development is Central to High School Supervision

Staff development is critical to the high school principal's supervisory role just as it is to the elementary principal's and the day care director's for similar and different reasons.

Unlike day care programs, high schools have little turnover. Teachers are

highly educated, very experienced and certified. Principals thus have a nucleus of qualified staff, some of whom may not be "up to date" regarding developments in their fields or enthusiastic about teaching at this point in their careers. On the other hand, these staff members are a rich resource for organizing their own staff development, given the encouragement and opportunity to do so and for assisting in the process of promoting the professional development of their peers.

The lack of connectedness to each other and to the institution that teachers and other staff may feel in a large organization, the downsizing of some high schools due to declining enrollment, and the routineness which characterizes instruction at this level (Goodlad, 1984) are aspects of life in high schools which also suggest a need for good professional development.

Subject matter is of primary importance

High school teachers perceive themselves to be authorities in their disciplines. They tend to be concerned with teaching students a critical body of knowledge within a specific field of study. Pressure on teachers to cover a certain amount of material is heightened as students at this level, soon to graduate, need to achieve respectable scores on S.A.T.'s or other college entrance examinations.

The emphasis on subject matter may offer principals an avenue for bringing about change in teaching and in schools. As teachers place such a high priority on their academic fields, then the disciplines can become the focii for dialogue with teachers about teaching.

High Schools Are Organized by Academic Departments

The history of this form of organization in high schools has several implications for supervision. First, interdisciplinary teaching is discouraged. Departments are somewhat antonomous and in some cases separate fiefdoms, often

located in distinct sections of a school. Such arrangements discourage communication among teachers from different fields, effectively prohibiting any form of team teaching across disciplines. Departmentalization creates competition for resources. Department chairs jockey with each other for space, for textbooks and other teaching materials, and for staff positions. The principal takes on the role of arbitrator and allocator of resources.

Although a departmental system of organization is viewed by some educators as efficient particularly from a management perspective, it may not be the most appropriate way to organize large schools to support students and teachers. As supervisors of instruction, a challenge for principals is to think of ways to organize instruction to create a sense of community among teachers and students which would enable teachers to talk, to collaborate and to share information with each other.

Supervision Across Levels: Implications for Recruitment, Training and Support

Several generalizations about supervisors and supervision at each level of schooling described in this paper can be made which have implications for the recruitment, training and support of supervisors:

1) Supervision is not valued at the early childhood, elementary, and secondary levels. In each case, the director/principal does not have adequate support to personally carry out or to establish a structure for the supervision and nurturing of staff, thoughtfully and systematically.

In day care programs, directors engage in an endless cycle of recruiting, training and re-training staff and cope with low morale.

At the public school level, the principal's job description, collective bargaining agreements and school district organizations and cultures really get in the way of quality supervision. There are few rewards from the district for principals and little support from central office for supervising staff

effectively. For example as reported earlier, support is lacking in the form of additional help for supervision: job redesign for teachers so that more could assume supervisor and staff development roles for part of the day; autonomy at the school level over inservice activities, back-up from central office when confronting ineffective teachers and funding for professional development.

Principals and directors appear to be doing the best they can, given present circumstances.

2) A second and related point is that supervision is only one aspect of a broader, all-encompassing role which is associated with being the head of an educational program.

While practitioners perceive the supervision of instruction within the larger context of their total responsibilities, professors teach supervision as an isolated subject and board members and superintendents press school heads for more and better supervision, often without acknowledging the demands and responsibilities of the job as a whole.

This situation creates frustration in practitioners who are unable to reconcile the value they place on supervision with the expectations of higher administrators and staff members and new knowledge and skills learned in coursework, with the time available for supervision in the director/principal role.

3) As organizations become larger, supervision becomes less personal and more formal.

The bureaucratic layer which separates high school principals from teachers, and the constraints imposed by large organizations create a very different ethos for supervision than in day care programs where directors frequently work in classrooms. A by-product of the smaller early childhood

settings is that directors are viewed as supervisors who provide support to staff. This perception of supervision as helping is very different than that in high schools where principals are often perceived to be evaluators and sometimes are even seen as adversaries by teachers.

The culture of supervisor/teacher relations in day care is also different from that in public school settings where the supervision of teachers is shrouded by a culture of suspicion and distrust. Day care is not "saddled" by a history of supervision as inspection. Prevailing attitudes are more likely to be based on a group mission that "We are in that together, advocates for children and families." The sense of feeling undervalued by society may serve to create a bonding between directors and teachers, fostering more a team approach.

Current public school restructing efforts which avocate creating environments on a human scale such as magnet schools, schools within schools, house plans, team clustering and more autonomy and control by practitioners over their "work-lives" at the school level may serve to bring about better relationships and cohesiveness between principals and teachers and a more humanistic form of supervision.

4) As we move from pre-school settings to high schools, the focus of supervision shifts from the child, to the teacher, to the subject and the teacher.

Interviews and informal discussions with day care directors by the author suggest that studying children is seen as a way of bringing about behaviorial change in children as well as in teachers. As noted earlier, supervision at the elementary and secondary levels is teacher-bound. And, of course, the shift from organizing classroom settings by single age and multi-age groupings in day care, to self-contained classrooms by grade in elementary schools,

to departmentalization by subject in high schools is reflective of the importance placed on the academic disciplines as children get older.

Is this state of affairs desirable? If so, what does it mean for the training of supervisors? What does it mean for how supervision is structured? For example, should high school teachers be supervised only by content area specialists and how can high schools be organized to enable this to happen? In the preparation of day care supervisors, should greater emphasis be placed on observing and recording children's behavior and its implications for structuring learning environments and caregiving? Would this approach make sense at the elementary and secondary levels as well, or would it be rejected because of different value systems?

5) At each level, there is a racial and gender imbalance between supervisors, teachers and children. More minorities are desparately needed for both supervisory and teaching positions. The number of women in principalships at the elementary and secondary levels is shockingly low while men are virtually non-existent in teaching and supervisory positions in the day care field.

6) At the day care and elementary levels, in particular, the educational backgrounds and professional work experiences of directors and principals may not be a close match with the age levels of children served by their respective programs.

Although it is encouraging that the majority of directors have some early childhood training and that 42% hold bachelor's degrees (Whitebook, et al., 1989), many come from backgrounds that are unrelated to child care. Regulations which would require day care directors to have a college degree in early childhood education, to hold an early childhood certificate, and to have training in supervision, and staff development would create the most desirable situation.

One that would place them in a position to offer quality supervision.

In elementary schools, it is not uncommon for male principals to have backgrounds in secondary education. This can produce an adverse affect on the supervision of instruction particularly in the primary grades if such principals lack an understanding of the growth and development of elementary school-age children. For example, they may not permit the purchase of teaching materials or furniture appropriate to this age level. They may impose inappropriate methods of discipline and/or may not have tolerance for methods of teachings which require movement and small group work.

The author believes that heads of elementary schools should have previous elementary teaching experience; however, recent national policies promoting the deregulation of certification requirements recommend that elementary principalships be opened to individuals without any background in education (Bennett, W.J., 1986).

High school principals, on the other hand, are usually educated in a particular discipline, have secondary teaching experience and are often certified in more than one area. Those with advanced degrees in Administration are likely to have had some training in supervision.

It is ironic, however, that many principals, especially in large high schools, have little time to supervise teachers. Others are able to supervise teachers in their own fields but are often required to observe and evaluate teachers who are in fields in which they have little or no knowledge.

At present, there is little agreement among experts in the field of supervision as to what the essential background qualifications and professional experiences should be for those in supervisory/administrator roles at the various levels of schooling.

7) Staff development is a critical part of the role of supervisor at each level.

Day care directors and principals should have a knowledge of adult development and learning to guide them in their work with adults. Familiarity with models and principles of staff development and training would be of great value to day care directors as well as to elementary and high school prinicipals.

8) As part of their jobs, director/principals at each level supervise a range of a non-teacher professionals as well as non-professionals, yet supervisory training and the supervision literature is primarily geared to issues associated with teachers and teaching. In preparing individuals for these roles, more attention should be given to the supervision and development of the total staff, including those in non-instructional roles.

Conclusion

It is evident that directors and principals find their administrator/supervisor roles to be challenging and rewarding. The jobs, however, are complex, the resources available are slim, and the need for quality for supervision is great. It is clear that their roles as presently constituted and/or their job conditions do not enable the supervision of staff to take place in a thoughtful and meaningful way on a regular basis.

The examination and restructuring of schools may result in changes which will improve the quality of supervision in public schools. In day care, however, organizational restructuring is less needed than social policies and national guidelines which would support programs in such a way as to enable directors to maintain competent staff and raise the "floor" of quality in child care centers.

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